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A STUDY OF MOTIVATION IN COAST GUARD ORGANIZED RESERVED TRAINING UNITS

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A STUDY OF MOTIVATION

IN COAST GUARD ORGANIZED RESERVE TRAINING UNITS

By

Alban Landry
Lieutenant, United States Coast Guard

The objective of this paper is to provide the Coast Guard Reserve unit leader with an understanding of the most important areas in which he may motivate Reserve personnel and to guide him in handling himself in these areas to best advantage. This involves increased sensitivity and understanding of personal needs and the necessity of arranging the unit environment so that Reservists may achieve their own needs best by directing their own efforts towards organizational objectives. The first section of this paper is devoted to a brief discussion of the Coast Guard Reserve, stating the problem, and providing the leader with those facts regarding the nature of man and the term "motivation" which are considered necessary to bring him to the proper level of understanding needed in his supervisory position. The second section is concerned with types of leadership, authority, and discipline. Various motivation measurement techniques are then analyzed. Finally, leadership and motivation are linked in an inseparable bond. The paper closes with a series of conclusions presented for use of the Coast Guard Reserve leader in his supervision of unit personnel.

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A STUDY OF MOTIVATION
IN COAST GUARD ORGANIZED RESERVE TRAINING UNITS

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A Research Paper

Presented to

the Faculty of the Navy Management School

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* * * * *

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science in Management

* * * * *

By

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CHAPTER I

THE UNITED STATES COAST GUARD

The purpose of this chapter is to impart some conception of the diverse functions performed by the Coast Guard, thereby laying the groundwork for later discussion of the Reserve problem.

I. COAST GUARD HISTORY

In the early times of the American Republic, smuggling aboard vessels entering United States waters posed a threat to the survival of the nation. Such activity had been popular during the years of British occupation and was considered patriotic. It was quite natural, therefore, that public apathy in this regard could be changed only by positive and direct action. And so it came to pass that the first Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton, directed the construction of a fleet to enforce customs laws. These armed cutters were to insure the collection of import duties and the collection of tonnage dues from vessels entering United States waters. Known at that time as the Revenue Marine, and later as the Revenue Cutter Service, this fleet was the beginning of the federal agency recognized today as the United States Coast Guard. The fleet was authorized in a bill signed by Congress on August 4, 1790.

For nearly eight years the Revenue Marine was the only navy protecting the United States as the regular Navy was not organized until 1798. It participated in aggressive action against French privateers at the turn of the century. During the War of 1812 these small cutters were frequently outgunned by larger British man-o-wars but achieved an impressive record in combat.

In 1843 the first reorganization of the Revenue Marine was accomplished under the guidance of Under Secretary of the Treasury John Spencer. It was set up as a bureau within the Treasury Department along lines similar to the present organization. About the same time the Service began to make the transition from wood hulls and sail power to metal and steam.

The Civil War found cutters fighting on both sides. Some officers resigned in loyalty to the Confederacy and seized five cutters then in southern waters. The cutter Harriet Lane is credited with firing the first shot of the war on the eve of the bombardment of Fort Sumter. This shot was strategically placed across the bow of the southern steamer Nashville as this vessel attempted to run into Charleston harbor without showing her colors.

There followed an era of peace for half a century, interrupted only by the eight-month Spanish-American War of 1898. Numerous regulations were passed during this period to help make

the Revenue Cutter Service a tight-knit organization. In 1915 the Revenue Cutter Service was amalgamated with the Lifesaving Service and the new organization was called the Coast Guard.

World War I found the Coast Guard operating as an effective arm of the Navy. It is significant to note that the Coast Guard suffered greater losses, in proportion to its strength, than any of the other United States armed forces during this war.[1]

The Lighthouse Service passed into the hands of the Coast Guard in 1939, and the Bureaus of Marine Inspection and Navigation in 1942. At the same time, the Service was peaking its strength to meet the challenges of World War II. Again under Navy control, the Coast Guard assisted in antisubmarine warfare and convoy escort, manned Army and Navy craft, participated in amphibious assaults, continued extensive search and rescue activities, and established a vast network to protect the ports and beaches of the United States.

It was by an Act of June 23, 1939 (53 Stat. 854) that the Coast Guard Reserve was originally established.[2] It provided for

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[1]United States Coast Guard, Coast Guard History, CG-213 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1958), p. 12.

[2]United States Coast Guard, Administrative Manual For Coast Guard Reserve, CG-296 (Washington: U.S. Coast Guard, Treasury Department, 1960), p. 2-1.

a nonmilitary organization but was changed in 1941 to a military one, modeled after the Naval Reserve. Its mission is:

> ... to provide trained units and qualified individuals to be available for active duty in time of war or national emergency, and at such other times as the national security may require, to meet the needs of the active forces of the Coast Guard whenever, during, and after the period needed to procure and train additional units and qualified persons to achieve the planned mobilization.[3]

Fighting alongside regular forces during the war, Reserve forces upheld the motto of the Service, "Semper Paratus"--always ready.

II. SERVICE FUNCTIONS

In addition to its tasks as a branch of the Navy during times of war, the Coast Guard is charged with multifarious responsibilities during its peacetime operations. The merchant marine inspection and safety program was a logical outgrowth of the absorption by the Coast Guard of the Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation in 1942. Its main objective is that of accident prevention by inspection and regulation. The aids-to-navigation program encompasses a world-wide network of buoys, lighthouses, and electronic LORAN (Long Range Aids To Navigation) stations. The International Ice Patrol is another duty charged to the Coast Guard. Since the sinking of the British passenger liner Titanic by collision with an iceberg in the North Atlantic in 1912, the Ice

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[3] Ibid.

Patrol has established headquarters at Argentia, Newfoundland and Woods Hole, Massachusetts. By use of reports from vessels and planes, it maintains a continuous track of icebergs considered of potential danger to the safe passage of vessels and so advises by the use of maritime broadcasts.

The ocean station program is another duty for Coast Guard cutters. Operating within specified grid areas in both the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, these cutters serve as platforms for continuous weather observations which are relayed to the Weather Bureau. At the same time they serve as part of the fifth major area of responsibility assigned to the Coast Guard, that of search and rescue. It is comforting to trans-oceanic travelers both aloft and at sea to know that cutters are strategically placed for rescue activities should the need arise. Other elements in this program include lifeboat stations and all other Coast Guard cutters and planes. The value of human life knows no bounds in this Service. All the above duties continue to be carried out in time of war as well as peace.

III. ORGANIZATION

The Coast Guard organization is directed from its Headquarters located in Washington, D. C. In addition, there are twelve district offices located throughout the United States. Below this level of

authority there are numerous Coast Guard bases, stations, and detachments. Compared to other branches of the armed forces, these units are generally small in size. On some isolated light stations as few as two or three men may be found. All of this implies a heavy sense of responsibility for each Coast Guardsman, and the ability to function effectively without constant supervision is a trait that is required early in his career.

The Chief, Reserve Division, maintains his office at Headquarters and serves in a staff capacity to the Commandant. At the district level the Reserve Director serves in a corresponding staff position for the District Commander.

Below this level is maintained a network of Reserve components: Ready Reserve, Standby Reserve, and Retired Reserve. A large portion of the Ready Reserve is composed of men attending regularly scheduled drills in ORTU's (Organized Reserve Training Units). They are liable for involuntary call to active duty for a period not to exceed twenty-four months in time of national emergency proclaimed by the President. The Congress may call all members of the Ready Reserve for the duration of war or national emergency and for six months.[4] Drills are normally scheduled one night a week or one weekend per month.

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[4] Ibid., p. 3-1.

All ORTU's are classified as small, medium, or large. The authorized complement may be as small as 8 men or as large as 135 men. The organization of an ORTU is similar to that of a regular Coast Guard unit, calling for a Commanding Officer, Executive Officer, Training Officer, and a Pay and Supply Officer. Emphasis is placed on training and readiness.

CHAPTER II

THE RESERVE PROBLEM

I. INTRODUCTION

The cold war has dictated the necessity of a large military force. However, the economics of maintaining a very large standing (regular) force would result in a crushing taxation burden for the entire populace. As a result, Congress has seen fit to require the maintenance of a large Reserve in the armed forces, hoping to achieve some semblance of a trained pool of manpower available in an emergency without incurring the prohibitive expenses of an all-regular force.

However, part-time training has resulted in part-time loyalties. The average Coast Guard ORTU has found it difficult to achieve the spirited environment found in many regular units. The Reserve unit staff seeking to achieve an integrated team will find the task a challenging one.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Let us grant that under most conditions money or pay is important to a Reservist and that under conditions of no employment or partial employment--when he does not have any or has very little,

for instance--it is pre-eminent in importance. Conversely, when he has been able to satisfy his monetary needs to a great degree by his regular civilian employment, his pay for participating in the Reserve program assumes less importance.

There is substantial agreement that unit commanding officers can control the behavior of members by providing or withholding the means for satisfying this basic subsistence need. The simple expedient of refusing to recommend a Reservist for advancement or promotion though all technical requirements have been met will be a powerful motivator of human behavior. Through this device, minimum standards established in the unit can be met.

But this is not the issue in question. It has been observed that in spite of these powerful motivators of behavior, there still remain in many units a sizeable number of what appear to be "apathetic" Reservists lacking in loyalty, ambition, disliking responsibility, and resisting change. These are members whose energies are directed very little, if at all, to the objectives of the unit and the Reserve program. These observations do not differ too much from what many commanding officers perceive their members' behavior to be. Only when one tries to explain or interpret them do differences appear.

To one school of thought these perceptions reinforce only

too well what they already know--that man is, and that unit members in particular are, by inherent nature indolent, lazy, apathetic, passive, and ambitionless. Hence, it is the commanding officer's task to get things done through such human material. According to this school of thought, it follows that such Reservists can only be made tractable by carrots and sticks (i.e., rewards and punishments addressed directly to the satisfaction of subsistence needs). A second school implies that more lenient approaches are necessary to make them more willing to accept direction and to do what they are told (i.e., rewards that are often expressed by unit members as "being treated fairly and like human beings").

Note that those two approaches differ only in the means by which the Reservist can be made more tractable and can be made to accept direction. One says that this can best be done by being "tough"; the other says that it can best be done by being "soft."

The basic premise of this paper is that there is nothing intrinsic to the Reservist's motivation which makes him want to belong to the unit, to be concerned in the slightest with its goals or objectives, or to do any more than the minimum that is expected of him. Between his own personal goals and the goals of the unit and the Coast Guard Reserve there is no relation except that which his superiors provide. Whether implemented by means "hard" or "soft," this is the task of the commanding officer and

his staff: to provide some motivation externally for an internal motivation that isn't there. If there is nothing in the member's nature which makes him want to direct himself toward unit goals, it follows that he has to be pushed, directed, or led there firmly, kindly, but fairly. This is the problem.

III. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

As the goal of the Coast Guard Reserve organization is basically to train for operations subsequent to mobilization or national emergency, the study of means to more effectively motivate behavior towards these goals is deemed important when viewed in the national interest. In the near future, effective motivation will be increasingly difficult to achieve for at least two reasons:

a. The approaching twenty year retirement of many World War II veterans will reduce the number of "war motivated" Reservists available to influence young recruits with their tales of glory on the high seas.

b. The increasing educational level of the average recruit. Whereas the average enlisted man probably had only a grade school education during and shortly after World War II, he now has a high school education and many have college degrees. It is not unusual to find among them educational levels which exceed those of their superiors. Thoroughly Americanized, he expects and demands to be treated with dignity and respect, and he knows his legal rights.

Those persons responsible for achieving Reserve goals must be aware of the most effective methods to use. In this study an attempt was made to clarify motivation techniques which should prove

useful to the commanding officer and staff of any Coast Guard Organized Reserve Training Unit.

IV. LIMITATIONS

While there are many factors which may affect a person's motivation in any situation, this study is restricted to those areas which, through the experience of the writer and the various authorities in the field of motivation, are considered most important in their effect on the motivation of the Reservist, officer and enlisted alike.

The reference material used in this paper has been limited to those sources available at the U. S. Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey Public Library, and the U. S. Naval Reserve Training Center, Monterey, California.

Motivation, the elusive factor that it is, may from time to time be affected by unusual forces and factors, but in order to keep this paper within bounds and prevent confusion, the limitations provide a basis for understanding the problem without becoming involved in voluminous detail.

It is also recognized that motivation may include many factors that are beyond the ability of the leader to control, but this paper is limited to those factors that are within the ability of the leaders to control.

V. SUMMARY

The Coast Guard ORTU is a source of skilled manpower necessary to the national defense. However, a good deal of leadership problems have arisen due to part-time loyalties and lack of a strong military environment. Despite these handicaps, ways must be found to link the energies of every Reservist with the goals of the Coast Guard Reserve. A basic assumption is that there is nothing intrinsic within a Reservist to be concerned with such goals. Methods of positive action on the part of Reserve leaders must be explored.

CHAPTER III

THE NATURE OF MAN AND MOTIVATION

I. MAN AND HIS ENVIRONMENT

Man is composed of two parts, a physical body and a spiritual soul. Like animals, men have the faculties of locomotion, instincts, reactions, etc. Both will grow physically during life, assuming that minimum standards of nourishment are available. Observe a hungry baby and you see a squirming human yelling for food. Leave a diaper pin stuck in the baby's buttock and you are greeted with disturbed behavior. The same results are to be found in animals.

What is it, then, that separates men from animals or vegetable matter and places them on a higher level? It is man's spirit alone.

This spirit is composed of two parts, namely the intellect and free will. One is the power given to man by his Maker to comprehend the world about him; the other is the right to follow a chosen path in cooperating with or rebelling against the events of nature. It is this spirit which makes man alive. It is a thing not to be measured or weighed, yet not to be doubted in the face of the graphic facts of life. It stands alone in the physical

universe, living by its own life. Once brought into existence, it cannot be destroyed by disintegration nor by any attacks on the physical body which it vitalizes.

Our judgment of the manliness of a man or the womanliness of a woman is not based on vegetable or animal grounds. Our eyes are not made merely to see, our ears merely to hear; they are to furnish the rough material for a vision and an understanding far beyond the world of the senses. Our human touch has a meaning or it is not human, our human taste leads to judgments possible only to man or it is the animal's guzzling. Our passions are brutalized beyond all human resemblance when they are in command of our actions; in that false role, they destroy both the man and the passions themselves. The grounds of our judgment of excellence among men are human grounds: control, capable direction, mastery, responsibility.

World law is based on recognition of the individuality of a person's spirit. All murderers are not condemned to death or life imprisonment; the facts surrounding the events are investigated to conclude if the accused was in control of his intelligence and will. If not in control of these faculties, he may be committed to an institution and removed from society for correction of his tendency to resort to animal passions in his conduct; otherwise, he may be dealt with severely by society for abusing his

God-given intelligence and will, and he is held totally responsible for his acts.

Modern psychiatry now holds that mind and body are inseparable.[1] The tendency to regard the mind and body as separate has been discarded. The physical, chemical, psychological, and social factors of each person are now studied as a whole.

The understanding of this discussion of the nature of man is important before continuing any further in this study. It should make us aware of the complexity of the integrated human being. In proceeding to the analysis of means by which he may be directed, we should remember that seldom can we think of affecting a man's mind without also affecting his body and vice versa. Both influence and action are complementary and lead into the field of motivation.

II. INTRODUCTION TO MOTIVATION

In industry there is a growing recognition of the problems of men that reflects a changing point of view toward their management.[2]

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[1]William C. Menninger, What Makes An Effective Man (Personnel Series, No. 152. New York: American Management Association, 1953) p. 23.

[2]Daniel Katz, Employee Groups: What Motivates Them And How They Perform (Advance Management, Volume XIV, No. 3, September, 1949) p. 1.

The older conception of industrial efficiency and administration either left human beings out of the picture completely or substituted for the complex personality a simplified mechanical model of man. Thus, most industrial companies and other group organizations as well had as their goal the efficiency of organization of the total structure as if it were nothing but a huge machine. Scant attention was given to the fact that group organizations were made up of human beings. Job specifications called for different specialized performances by the various human beings making up the organization. The assumption was that any individual's behavior could be fitted into the picture without regard to the fact that he was an integrated human being. On the other hand, in the day-to-day functions of organizations there was the problem of dealing with and motivating entire human beings rather than the restricted segment of the individual required by the job specification and the organizational pattern. The failure of modern industry to transform the human personality into a robot meant that the human problem became aggravated with advances in scientific engineering.

Confronted with problems of human adjustment and human motivation in spite of the paper excellence of organizational charts, management had to concern itself with the human equation.[3] Thus,

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there can be distinguished three periods in the approach to this problem although these periods tend to overlap considerably.[4]

The first period was the era of fear and punishment. Workers could be docked severely if they punched in a minute late. They could be fined or fired without discretion for work not meeting the requirements of the foreman. The philosophy was military and authoritarian in tone in which the individual toed the line or faced the prospect of looking for another job.

The second period is evidenced by the organization of labor, the tightening of the labor market, and the spread of democratic ideas which led to a change in this fear psychology. Employees could no longer be motivated by an authoritarian boss. This gave rise to the spirit of benevolent paternalism which may lead to genuine satisfactions on the part of employees but they are in a large part compensatory and do not really replace the frustration and deprivation in the job itself.

The third period sets the current stage--one of confusion in which we have persistence of many of the old practices and points of view. However, a new point of view is beginning to emerge which makes no assumptions about the character of existing

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[4]Katz, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

organization structure. It attempts to look at the organization charts and paper procedures but in terms of the realities of their day-to-day functioning. It, moreover, utilizes a broader perspective in looking at segmentalized human activities and at the relationship between people in the organization.[5]

Thus, we find the beginnings of psychological analysis of human behavior in industry. Good executives have come to realize that the most important part of an organization is the people in it; how they work together, how they are led and how they lead are far more important than all the mechanical efficiencies imaginable.[6] From many sides in numerous ways we are constantly being reminded of the overwhelming importance of human relations. All forms of news agencies carry reports on conditions in such relations; governmental officials and politicians make them matters of prime concern; and business and union leaders agree that they constitute a field of first magnitude.[7]

More than ever before, successful business today depends on employee motivation and the right kind of leadership among

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[5]Katz, op. cit., p. 3.

[6]William E. Mosher, Donald J. Kingsley, and Glen O. Stahl, Public Personnel Administration (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950) p. 285.

[7]M. J. Jucius, Personnel Management (Chicago: Richard D. Irwin Inc. 1951) p. 1.

executives as an aid to furthering that motivation. Sustained, willing, and cooperative effort cannot be purchased with a pay envelope. It is something freely given by the employee because he is anxious to give it. Good management recognizes that there is no price tag for this kind of effort, realizes that it can be secured only by developing among employees the right kind of attitudinal behavior toward their jobs.

III. DEFINITION OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is the process of influencing man's will and human behavior; it is the means by which we attempt to create and maintain the desire of people to achieve planned goals. No matter how much machinery and equipment a firm has, these things cannot be put to use until they are released and guided by people who have been motivated. Think for a minute in terms of a locomotive sitting in a railroad station. All rails and equipment are in order; the schedules and routes are prepared; the objective is set; tickets are sold; the passengers are on board. No matter how well all this preliminary work has been done, the train cannot move one inch towards the next station until the steam is released--that is, until the motive power is supplied. Similarly, in any human organization, motivation turns on the steam and keeps it going.

IV. ELEMENTS OF MOTIVATION

Motivation can also be thought of as the art of increasing your sensitivity to a person's needs (or motives, as they are sometimes called). Needs are the most effective factors in determining an individual's behavior. The most fundamental needs are those which stem from our body physiology and chemistry, called primary needs. They are normally expressed by stimuli within the body. Examples of such needs include hunger, thirst, sex, and sleep.

There is another class of needs that are called secondary or derived needs. They are derived from one's interaction with his environment and are mostly social in character. Such needs vary among people much more than primary needs. They represent the needs of the mind and spirit and are often so hidden that frequently the person himself cannot recognize them. Former schools of psychology believed these social needs to be inherent in the human race; this instinctive school of thought has been virtually abandoned.[8] Rather, it is now believed that social motives are acquired.

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[8]D. M. Hall, Dynamics of Group Action (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 1957) p. 96.

These derived needs may be abstracted from human behavior. Since behavior is so diverse, so too are the motives from which the behavior springs. Economic security, recognition, participation, mastery, respect, and identification are groupings of such motives. Such a grouping is done as a convenience in study and the motives are listed according to the secondary wants they satisfy.

The desire for economic security seems to have taken on added importance when one considers the increasing social welfare legislation passed since World War II. Labor unions have used this motive as a strong bargaining point in negotiations with management. Industrial leaders are aware of increasing public opinion that seeks to guard workers against arbitrariness without depriving management of the authority it requires in dealing with layoffs nor workers with a minimal degree of economic security.

However, this economic incentive is not a single entity in itself and, contrary to public belief, is not rated at the top of incentive lists by most surveys. All this is not to say that it should be discounted.

Recognition has been achieved to some degree by industrial firms and government agencies through the use of the suggestion box. A socially alert supervisor will not immediately express

his frank opinion of a suggestion that has little or no value because he notes that the employee has a need for recognition. He therefore expresses appreciation of the suggestion and promises to have its value investigated. Regardless of the final action on the suggestion, the employee has been encouraged by this appreciation and will be stimulated to submit more ideas in the future.

Participation, or a feeling of "belonging" to something or someone, is vital to sustained interest. There are many methods used to promote participation, but the two most commonly found are conferences and delegation of authority. The conference technique must be used with skill or it will degenerate in vitality and be a waste of everyone's time. Delegation shows that a leader trusts people. However, once authority has been delegated, the leader should set up internal checks that let him know what goes on without his snooping and interfering.

The motive for mastery appears very strong in most human beings. When seeking to be in control, it is very similar to participation as the latter is used to gain mastery. It also drives people to be free and overcome obstacles. The completion of a task, solution of a problem, or victory in competition are satisfactions that show the power of this motive. Many psychologists believe this motive to originate in the rage response of infancy. Observe a young child whose activity is restrained and note that

he will become easily excited and often throw a temper tantrum. As he grows older, the child will recognize that such reactions will not overcome obstacles and he learns more adaptive forms of problem-solving responses. Then it is that he channels his normal energies into adjustment and learns to struggle with his problem mentally instead of physically. He is still motivated by essentially the same desire for mastery that led him as an infant to throw a temper tantrum.

The basic goal of practically everyone is to defend and enhance his whole self. This desire for a feeling of the significance of what they are doing is called respect. People are respected for what they are and not merely for what they can do. When the self-picture (who he is, where he is, what he is, and the like) is sound and worthy, then a person can be motivated to achieve higher goals.

Identification has long been used by the armed forces as a powerful motivator. The soldier, sailor, or airman is instructed to wear his uniform with great pride as it signifies his belonging to the Army, Navy, or Air Force. With it, he is told, he identifies himself in the service of his country. Similarly, in bowling league competition, bowlers tend to reject anonymity and wear distinctive shirts with the name of their employer or fraternal club emblazoned on the back for all spectators to witness. Again,

identification is the motive from which this type of behavior springs.

There is a popular expression which states that "things are not always what they appear to be." Nowhere is this more true than in the realm of human motivation. We have stated that often needs are hidden and go unrecognized. Many of the "personality" types occur because of unconscious internal forces, and all people are influenced to a greater or lesser extent by them. The presence of unconscious motivation, therefore, is not to be construed as bad or a sign of poor mental health. The implication is that we all do some things without personal awareness as to why. In fact, Hepner says:

> We learn to become aware of the influence of needs when we deal with a person with whom we cannot discuss certain subjects. We discover with regard to those topics, he will react in accordance with an unconscious motive. We do not, as a rule, know the exact nature or origin of the drive but we recognize its influence as shown in his conversation or when it appears again and again as a dominating influence in his daily behavior. Each individual's life has certain patterns of behavior that indicate the motivating influence of continuing deepseated needs on his part.[9]

Hence, the inner or unconscious needs of the individual are fundamental to understanding what he does and why. We should also observe that needs have a certain priority and that basic ones

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[9]Harry W. Hepner, Perceptive Management and Supervision (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961) p. 435.

tend to be met first. When they are satisfied, then a person will proceed to satisfy his derived needs in accordance with his own schedule.

No discussion of the elements of motivation would be complete without a few observations of interpersonal communication. Communication can be thought of as the carrier of all of our social processes. The lack of it can lead to personal frustration, the very antithesis of motivation.

The more formal and informal channels set up for the flow of communications between persons and groups, the easier becomes the process of motivation. Information must flow from bottom to top as well as vice versa if adequate perspective is to be maintained at both levels. This flow of ideas should not be considered a panacea, however. Frequently those persons at the bottom do not have the whole story and their reports, while of considerable value, must be tempered in review by a consideration of the entire framework. This lack of perspective often found at the bottom has little effect on the value of encouraging such communications. As was previously outlined in our discussion of participation, the use of such measures as the suggestion box can provide a means through which aggressions can be harmlessly discharged and motivation increased; and so it is with any other type of communications.

A word of caution is necessary to insure that such communication devices are properly administered or the results may be worse than if none were established.

V. SUMMARY

We have now examined the nature of man and distinguished him from animal and vegetable matter. The most important characteristic is man's soul. Consisting of both intellect and free will, it feeds on itself and can be quite independent of man's physical existence. However, the tendency of modern psychiatry is to study both soul and body as a whole.

The influence brought to bear on man's spirit has been defined as motivation. We have examined the nature of both primary and derived needs, noting that man will attempt to satisfy first the former and then the latter. Important derived needs include economic security, recognition, participation, mastery, respect, and identification. The importance of unconscious motivation has been analyzed and found essential to an understanding of behavior. Interpersonal communication is seen as a catalyst in the motivation process; its antithesis is personal frustration.

CHAPTER IV

MOTIVATION AND LEADERSHIP

I. DEFINITION AND TYPES OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is motivation of people.[1] Planning, organizing, and decision-making are dormant cocoons until the leader triggers the power of motivation in people and guides them towards goals. In the process, it is essential to remember that most people love to be led.[2] The outstanding leader so infuses his followers to be led that they will do everything possible to comply with his wishes and support the policies of the organization whether the leader be present or not.

The simplest classifications of leadership are those of the democratic and authoritarian types. From the viewpoint of the first classification, leadership is seen as a cooperative activity, typified by the phrase "working with." Situations are arranged so that the work will go forward in a shared direction and is sometimes called the cooperative mode. The democratic leader feels that people naturally want to do good work if given

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[1]American Management Association, Manufacturing Series, No. 204, 1953. p. 7.

[2]Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., Inc. 1935) p. 91.

the opportunity and incentive. He participates in the making of group decisions instead of retaining this function solely for himself. He hopes to harness the energies of his followers in such a way that they tend to supplement, rather than oppose, his own energy. This type of leadership is "integrative" in that it is concerned with involving as many followers in the affairs of the organization as possible. It is "team minded" in the sense that it is concerned primarily with building cooperative work teams in the organization.

A study that illustrates this type of leadership has been called the "experiment that failed."[3] It really failed because it "worked too well," as we shall see further on. The study is primarily concerned with relations of a group of girls and their foreman in a toy manufacturing plant; secondarily it concerns what happened when attitudes and work efficiency of this small group were changed, as a result of changed group dynamics, to relations of this small group to the larger organization.

The foreman of this group was having trouble with low morale, especially after the toy painting operation on which the girls were engaged was re-engineered. The engineers had calculated

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[3]William Foote Whyte, Money and Motivation (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955) p. 90.

a rate at which each girl could work when fully trained. Most of the girls were trainees; the quit rate had been high. The girls were paid a learning bonus which was eliminated after six months experience for each girl. They were then on a group bonus plan.

A consultant (Alex Bavelus) talked several times with the foreman, suggesting a meeting with the girls. The foreman held the meeting; the girls asked for a ventilation fan; it was provided; the girls seemed happier. Then the foreman got the idea that another participative discussion, a second meeting, would help further; he held another meeting. The meetings seemed effective because of the reduced tensions and good will engendered by the original discussions.

The girls were concerned about the speed of the hooks on which the toys were conveyed.

> The turning point of the discussion came when the group's leader frankly explained that the point wasn't that they couldn't work fast enough to keep up with the hooks, but that they couldn't work at that pace all day long. The foreman explored the point. The girls were unanimous in their opinion that they could keep up with the belt for short periods if they wanted to. But they didn't want to because if they showed that they could do this for short periods they would be expected to do it all day long.
>
> The meeting ended with an unprecedented request: "Let us adjust the speed of the belt faster or slower depending on how we feel." The foreman, understandably startled, agreed to discuss this with the superintendent and the engineers.

> The engineers' reaction naturally was that the girls' suggestion was heresy. Only after several meetings was it granted grudgingly that there was in reality some latitude within which variations in the speed of the hooks would not affect the finished product. After considerable argument and many dire prophecies by the engineers, it was agreed to try out the girls' idea.
>
> With great misgivings, the foreman had a control with a dial marked "low, medium, fast" installed at the booth of the group leader; she could now adjust the speed of the belt anywhere between the lower and upper limits that the engineers had set. The girls were delighted, and spent many lunch hours deciding how the speed of the belt should be varied from hour to hour throughout the day.[4]

The girls, within three weeks, were working at a speed 30 to 50 per cent higher than the level expected when the re-engineered plan was put into effect. They were still collecting the learning bonus, plus base pay, plus the group bonus; their earnings were much higher than expected--more, in fact, than highly skilled workers in other departments of the factory. Controversies ensued because of this pay differential and this was the failure we mentioned at the outset. However, for our purpose, it is a vivid description of democratic leadership in action.

From the viewpoint of the authoritarian classification, leadership is seen as ordering or directing the activities of others. It is sometimes necessary to motivate through fear and insecurity by threatening to decrease satisfaction. This leadership

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[4]Ibid., p. 93.

exercises power over people rather than through them. Supervision can be a mere passing down of orders by virtue of authority; this reliance on authority is sometimes called the directive mode. A fictitious illustration will aid us here.

> The Commandant of the Coast Guard had decided that certain ORTU's were to be reorganized. The ORTU training mission had called for group training of enlisted reservists in certain rating specialties. Now this mission of selected ORTU's was to be revised and such units were to function along the lines of a regular service operating unit and train primarily toward that end within an established billet structure. In one ORTU the plan for reorganization was finalized without discussion, cooperation, or even knowledge of the unit members, except for the Commanding Officer, Cdr. Jackson. He was an officer of the school that believed orders of a superior should be obeyed to the letter without hesitation or question. He was legalistic, logical, autocratic, authoritative, formal and rigidly directive as far as his officers and enlisted men were concerned.
>
> When the plan was in its final form, Cdr. Jackson called a meeting of his unit officers to tell them of the change. He began the meeting in a formal manner and read off the list of changes from a prepared memorandum, copies of which he then passed out among his officers. He ended the brief meeting with this order: "Take your posts."
>
> The officers were dismayed. There was for a short time complete silence in the meeting room; then, when the group dispersed, the officers got together in small groups to discuss their versions of the implications of the changes. Surprise, discontent, and lack of understanding were evident.

When Cdr. Jackson had been selected as Commanding Officer, he had referred to his new activity as "taking over" the unit. To reorganize the unit, to him, meant clear definitions of channels of authority. He believed there was one and only one mode of supervision: the authoritarian mode. He wanted to deal with each Reservist by the authority vested in him by virtue of his position.

II. AUTHORITY AND MOTIVATION

Authority is that which influences or motivates behavior of a person under circumstances in which the person has no participation in deciding the behavior. In some situations, it is the opposite of the "golden rule." Jackson's officers "took their posts" without cooperative discussion; they did not participate in the plan. Authority reduced the number of alternative ways of behaving to two. Authority is always coupled with the power of sanction. The authoritative mode of supervision is accompanied by an explicit or implied threat of sanction or punishment.

Authority as defined includes two parts: giving an order and carrying out the order. The significant aspect of authority is that it does not exist if the receiver of the order does not carry it out.[5] If he refuses, or brings in play his own or other's sanctions, or tries and fails to carry out the order, then authority is not present. There would have been complete lack of authority in Jackson's case if the officers of the unit had refused to submit to the orders.

The officers did not submit completely; they appeared to be subservient, not subordinate, when the order was given. They did

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[5]Roger M. Bellows, "Motivation By Dynamic Supervision," Personnel Journal, Volume 39, Number 8 (January, 1961) p. 306.

not act with great enthusiasm and did not carry out the orders without question. When they gathered in small groups after the meeting they questioned the reorganization plan; when they entered upon their new duties on subsequent drills, they did so in a way that resulted in considerably less than maximum efficiency for the unit. Authority was present in some degree but it was not complete.

It is seen that authority as a mode of supervision is not an all-or-none affair. It exists in degree.[6]

Authority may not be complete for two reasons: (1) willingness and (2) ability on the part of the workers. In the illustration of Jackson's unit he had not taken into account in a reasonably precise way the problem of matching abilities with specifications of the different billets in the unit to which he allocated the various officers. We would not expect authority to work very well. This is an illustration of lack of supervisory skills as well as misuse of authority on Jackson's part. He did not take into account the emotional and social factors, believing that ordering or directing a unit is itself more of a mechanical than a social process. In a word, he neglects the motivational needs in the situation. These are of paramount importance.

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[6] Ibid.

III. DISCIPLINE AND MOTIVATION

Discipline has been defined as "...the training effect of experience, adversity, etc.; subjection to rules of conduct or behavior; a state of order maintained by training and control..."[7] Pfiffner says that it can also be used in the sense that members of an organization respond in a good and willing spirit or in a sullen one.[8] But this smacks too closely of our definition of authority. For the purposes of this paper, discipline is defined as that force, either external or internal, that causes or motivates individuals or groups of individuals to conform to rules, regulations, and high standards of work behavior.

The distinction between positive and negative discipline should be considered. Positive discipline is constructive and corrects by showing the right way. It is preventative and hopes to head off trouble before it starts. Negative discipline uses deterrent forces to secure the desired action. This involves the application of some type of penalty or punishment, thereby taking care of the trouble after it occurs.

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[7]Clarence L. Barnhart (ed.), The American College Dictionary (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948) p. 344.

[8]John M. Pfiffner, The Supervision of Personnel (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1958) p. 362.

To be effective, discipline must be administered from the concept of obtaining the best results by firm, considerate control and not that of domination through fear. Encouragement is given to the development of the workers' self respect, initiative, and interest. Effective discipline helps get the job done and develops the respect of the worker for his supervisor. Furthermore, it develops the good will of the work group which results in better cooperation. There are many rules put forth as a guide for the maintaining of effective discipline. In general they all require the supervisor to do the following:[9]

a. Promptly investigate the reports of laxity.

b. Explain rules fully.

c. Put special orders in writing.

d. Administer discipline to fullest extent needed.

e. Inform worker why he is being disciplined.

f. Be firm, decisive, direct.

g. Show no bias or favoritism.

h. Be constantly aware of employee attitudes.

i. Act within limits of his authority.

Effective discipline can be enhanced by the giving of praise. However, the dangers involved are so great as to deter some from

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[9]R. O. Beckman, How To Train Supervisors (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940) p. 297.

using it at all. There are those who will let down in their effort after praise, while in other instances it will be regarded by fellow workers as an example of favoritism. Another deterrent is the occasional narcotic effect of praise, requiring ever-increasing doses to produce the desired response. While praise is an incentive, its dissemination is an art to be practiced with skill.

Pfiffner has assembled some guides for use in praise which are worthy of note and these are as follows:[10]

1. Praise should be fitted to the individual; thus some knowledge of how he will act is required.

2. Consideration should be given to the manner in which praise will affect the morale of the other employees.

3. Oftentimes indirect praise that reaches an individual in a roundabout way is very well received.

4. It is often effective from the standpoint of group morale to praise the work rather than the individual worker.

5. Praise that is too lavish may lose its effectiveness.

6. Be sure that the worker who is being praised believes that it is deserved. He should sense the supervisor's sincerity and feel that the praise is not given for an ulterior purpose.

These methods of application should be of considerable assistance to the Coast Guard Reserve leader in a situation suggesting the use thereof.

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[10]Pfiffner, op. cit., pp. 240-241.

IV. MOTIVATION MEASUREMENT TECHNIQUES

The measurement of motivation is not an easy task but one that Haire concludes must be done regularly.[11] Individuals differ in the weight they give to various motives. One tool that is used by many in attempting to measure the why of human behavior is the attitude survey. Regularly used and properly administered, it may prove useful. The commanding officer of an ORTU could administer such a survey to show the areas in which more effort should be directed in motivating unit members to accomplish Reserve goals. The trouble with many attitude surveys, however, is that nobody does anything about faults that are uncovered. When that happens, it's worse than if no survey had been taken. Merely to explore opinions and attitudes is not only of little value, but it can accentuate any existing unfavorable feelings.

Attitude surveys usually take one of two forms. On the one side we have the directed interview and the written questionnaire, both designed to extract specific facts from the subordinate. On the other side we have the non-directive interview or subordinate counseling which seeks to provide for psychological adjustment. A point that is considered appropriate here is that

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[11]Mason Haire, Modern Organization Theory (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1959) p. 186.

subordinate interviewing plans are not in and of themselves the remedy for low motivation. The aim of such plans must be clearly kept in mind--more effective work through better worker motivation brought about by more understanding supervision. Furthermore, an attitude survey or any other barometer of subordinate feelings is of little value unless it succeeds in identifying factors that affect motivation and points the way toward changes that may be instituted by the leader.

Let us now consider the various aspects of the interview methods. As stated above, there are, in general, two broad approaches to interviewing: directive and non-directive. In the former, the interviewer assumes values and goals and tries to direct the client toward them; in the latter, the client or subordinate is induced to work out his own solutions and values. The authoritative approach is older, while modern trends are decidedly in the direction of laissez-faire methodology. The non-directive system assumes that intellect, diagnosis and understanding leads the subordinate to a corresponding attempt at self-correction. Its weakness lies in ignoring the part played by emotions. The technique is, by skillful interviewing and artful listening, to draw out of an individual what is really innermost in his feelings toward his work situation and help him analyze for himself why he feels as he does. However, like other approaches to problems of

human relations, the non-directive interview is not a cure-all and has considerable limitations. It is costly and time-consuming and requires the use of trained interviewers. It will only work when the subordinate can be encouraged to talk freely. The immediate supervisor is representing authority and this status inhibits the free flow of information. Another obstacle in such a program is the disinclination of subordinates to be marked as problem cases. It is considered important that the Reserve leader be made aware of this non-directive type of interview technique since there are instances when it can be used with considerable success.

As a result of long and concentrated efforts in interviewing, Roethlisberger and Dickson have formulated a technique for the process. These techniques have been declared to be the basis for good human relations and have been reduced to five rules as follows:[12]

1. ...the supervisor should listen patiently to what his subordinate has to say before making any comment himself....

2. ...the supervisor should refrain from hasty disapprobation of his subordinate's conduct.

3. ...the supervisor should not argue with his subordinate.

4. ...the supervisor should not pay exclusive attention to the manifest content of the conversation.

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[12]F. J. Roethlisberger, and W. J. Dickson, Management and Morale (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1944) p. 41.

5. ...the supervisor should listen, not only to what a person wants to say but also to what he does not want to say or cannot say without assistance.

The use of questionnaires which require written response to printed questions has its main advantage in that it is simple to administer. They may ask questions that can be answered: first, in yes-or-no and true-or-false fashion; second, by choosing from a group of several possible responses; and third, by ranking lists of items of varying degrees of favorableness. They may be limited to a few subjects or cover practically all phases of supervisor-subordinate relations.

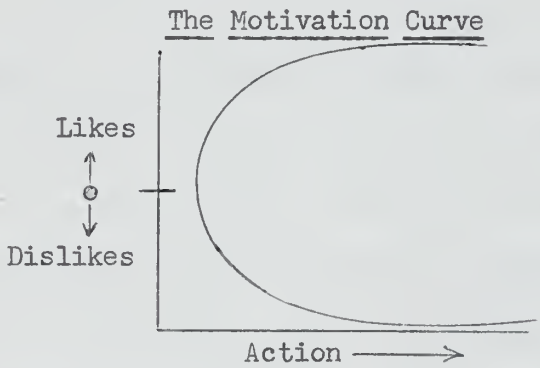
Results from the questionnaire can be obtained relatively cheaply and quickly. Questionnaires can be given to large groups of people within a short period of time by inexperienced help. Responses can be secured which are highly specific, are easily marked for tabulation, and yield satisfactory, though not perfect, measures of attitudes.

The chief disadvantages of this method are the same that apply to any questionnaire. Are the questions constructed so that they really ask what the inquirer wants to know? Will the one who interprets the questions interpret them as intended? Will he give his real thoughts? This question is of greatest importance since unless the answers are honestly given, the results are

of no value. Are there leading questions? Is the question too long and complicated? Is it useful for present purposes, even though it is impersonal?

Thus the scale is balanced in favor of the questionnaire method when the attitudes of large numbers of subordinates are to be measured in relatively short periods of time. It is assumed, of course, that the questionnaire is skillfully constructed, administered, and evaluated, else the results are of little value.[13]

In the long run, the only way to truly evaluate which motives are stronger in a person is to see which motives win in a conflict. The chosen act shows the stronger motive. Hall has given us a graphic view of what might be expected in such an evaluation:[14]



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[13] M. J. Jucius, Personnel Management (Chicago: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1951) p. 315.

[14] D. M. Hall, Dynamics of Group Action (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 1957) p. 130.

Note that actions will increase as both likes and dislikes increase. A person will be motivated toward any particular course of action for one of two reasons: either to gain increased need satisfaction (likes) or to avoid decreased need satisfaction (dislikes). In either case, a person behaves according to the way that he sees his needs can best be satisfied. To an outside observer a person's expected need satisfaction may be illusory or misinterpreted, but it is still controlling. He is not motivated by what people think he ought to have, but by what he himself wants. His decision to conform is based upon his own motives rather than upon any desire to satisfy those having power over him. Therefore, his reaction to any situation is always a function, not of the absolute character of the interaction, but of his perception of it.

These observations have been the source of great concern for those engaged in "measuring the market" by use of consumer motivation research.[15] Time and again in study after study, the administrators of such research projects have proclaimed the futility of attempting to accurately measure consumer motivation. Housewives have been asked if they would purchase an item if brought to them in the market place. Yet, when the preponderance of affirmative answers justified the production of the item, the

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[15]Gilbert Burck, "What Makes Women Buy," Fortune (August, 1956) p. 93.

results in the market place have often been discouraging. An outstanding example of this behavior was reflected in the Ford Motor Co. project of producing a new automobile, the Edsel, in 1956. The motivation research carried out for this project was among the most ambitious ever attempted. However, sales of this new automobile were so much lower than the research anticipated that production was finally discontinued after huge losses were incurred.

Why this failure in motivation research? Though many theories have been advanced, it is the contention here that failure to practice empathy was probably a contributing factor. There are no set rules for the practice of empathy. The ability to emphasize can best be achieved by asking yourself the question, "What would I do and how would I feel in this particular situation?" A sincere attempt should then be made to:

a. Determine all the circumstances surrounding the matter in question.

b. Evaluate each of the possible subsequent effects of the action to be taken or statements to be made.

c. Avoid rationalizations that would normally apply only to yourself; be as objective as possible.

d. Temper your conclusions and final decision with sympathetic understanding and customary courtesies.

To do these things may appear demanding in terms of time and effort, but there are no short cuts. Consumer motivation researchers would do well to bear in mind that most consumers will strongly endorse

the production of any new product as it should produce more intense competition, to the benefit of the consumer. When faced with a choice of alternatives in the market place, this same consumer will resort to his usual habits of weighing quality and cost of the alternatives, regardless of what he told the research personnel. It can now be seen that a considerable deviation from anticipated results should not be startling. Stated again, the only true measure of motivation lies in the observation of motives under conflict.

V. THE LEADER AND MOTIVES

What is the function of the leader? The function of the leader is to organize the activities of the members of the group toward the accomplishment of some end through means for the satisfaction of the relevant needs of the group. Hoslett says he must appear to the people he is to lead as a means for their need satisfaction or they will not accept his direction.[16] This does not mean mollycoddling, paternalism, or universal happiness. It means that the leader must understand human behavior and human motivation in order to provide the leadership necessary to achieve the goals of the organization.

Human skill "...is demonstrated in the way the individual perceives (and recognizes the perception of) his superiors, equals,

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[16]Schuyler D. Hoslett, Human Factors In Management (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951) p. 13.

and subordinates, and in the way he behaves subsequently."[17] Being sensitive to the needs and motivations of others, he is able and willing to act in a way consistent with this recognition. This skill must be developed in a natural way and used on a day-to-day basis and not only at times of decision. As an indication of a man's true self, it will eventually show through. It is one thing to recognize such areas as status, promotion, and prestige and quite another to establish and implement policies with respect to them. As Koontz and O'Donnell have said, motivation is a whole piece of cloth.[18] The neglect of important elements tends to exaggerate the importance of money and other measurable income and often leads to costly demands for economic rewards to fill the void created by inattention to the full gamut of personal goals.

The leader must act with respect to these motives. First, he must identify them. If the leader can get a picture of the way each subordinate rates and evaluates his desires as of now, then he has a map of that subordinate's motivation. If the leader can learn what subordinates want and how badly they want it, then he has discovered a key to each subordinate's behavior. If the

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[17]Edward C. Bursk (ed.), Human Relations For Management (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956) p. 192.

[18]Harold Koontz, and Cyril O'Donnell, Principles of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., 1959) p. 236.

leader finds the pattern of motivation now influencing a subordinate's thinking, he has a good part of the answer as to why the subordinate acts as he does. Specifically, the leader needs to know (1) which motives currently control the subordinate's behavior, (2) the relative strength of each, and (3) what features and advantages at the leader's disposal will appeal to the employee in the light of (1) and (2). Then and only then can the leader observe this sound advice:[19]

> To sway John Doe
> You would be wise
> To see John Doe
> Through John Doe's eyes.

Sometimes it helps to think: How would I feel if I were in John Doe's shoes? It is better, however, if you can find out how John really does feel. And then you need to go beyond that and ask: If I were in John's shoes and felt as he does about things and had his particular background, what would I want, and what would I do?

How does a supervisor go about identifying a subordinate's motivational pattern? We have already discussed motivation measurement techniques and suffice it to summarize again here that while attitude surveys may be effective to some degree, a good

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[19]R. P. Calhoon, and C. A. Kirkpatrick, Influencing Human Behavior (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., 1955) p.45.

leader will also rely on experimentation in conflict situations. He will try many appeals, see how they work, and then file away, in memory or in written records, his conclusions.

Second, a leader may implant motives. There will be occasions when the leader finds himself confronting a subordinate in whose motivational pattern some changes must be made before there will be any behavioral change. In some of these cases the subordinate attaches no importance to one or more motives to which the supervisor's proposal appeals. It may be necessary to remind the subordinate about needs he may have forgotten. For example, if a subordinate's attendance record has been slipping, a reminding question might ask him in the course of a conversation whether he is still saving toward his daughter's college education.

Where the subordinate's action-control mechanism is faulty or unrealistic, Calhoon and Kirkpatrick say it is the leader's first duty to teach and educate.[20] He must make clear to the subordinate that a different motivational pattern is preferable to the one the subordinate now follows. Only if the subordinate accepts the new set of motives is he apt to go along with the change. As an example, a subordinate's work has been slipping because he sees no future for himself in the job. He feels that

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[20] Ibid., p. 46.

he is "dead-ended." This is true, but at the same time he has a rather good, secure job. The leader can help the subordinate adjust himself to the fact by pointing out that there just aren't a large number of promotable jobs beyond his level. But the subordinate has the task of accepting the situation as it is and of living with it realistically. This is an adjustment the subordinate must make.

Third, the leader excites motives. Having discovered or implanted the motives that steer the employee toward desired action, the leader has only to fan the flames of those desires until they induce the subordinate to act. In one sense, it is fair to say that one main duty of a leader is to exercise and stimulate favorable motives. The motives excited, of course, will be those which (1) seem most powerful in that subordinate's scheme of affairs and (2) are best satisfied by the current circumstances or suggestions. Appeals to those motives will be stressed, because it is only common sense to work on those desires which are most urgent and most intense--they are the ones most likely to cause either a change in behavior or a desired action.

The most expert, intensive exciting will do little good unless directed at dominant and powerful motives. What does the subordinate want or value most? Suppose it is a feeling of mastery, of being outstanding in what he does. Then this is the motive to excite. If the subordinate has been getting careless,

you can point out that he has always been near the top of the list in accuracy. You can show confidence that he has the stuff to get back up there again. Even though he protests with all sorts of excuses and blames his errors on everything under the sun, the chances are that you have scored and that he will improve. As Ecker, et al, have pointed out, most people are capable of doing many things well and a high degree of potential ability is not so important in predicting success on a job or in training as is the individual's desire or motivation.[21] We know that the man with a low IQ, if highly motivated, can often do a far better job than the "big brain" who has little motivation. We have all seen this in practice.

VI. SUMMARY

Good leadership tries to motivate men in the direction that will produce results. Leadership is classified into two types--democratic and authoritarian. The former is an attempt to increase participation of subordinates in the decision-making process. It hopes to generate enthusiasm for the goals of the organization by such participation and is sometimes called the cooperative mode. Authoritarian leadership is based on authority

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[21]Paul Ecker, John MacRae, Vernon Ouellette, and Charles Telford, Handbook For Supervisors (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1959) p. 86.

to a larger degree than democratic leadership. The position of a leader is viewed as separate and distinct from that of his subordinates. It calls for a minimum of participation and a maximum of order-giving.

To be complete, authority must be accepted by subordinates. In most cases, this acceptance is somewhat less than one hundred per cent and therefore authority usually exists in some degree. Its definition precludes the sense of participation as a motivating force.

Discipline contains both external and internal facets of the mind and in use can be positive, negative, or a combination of both. In most cases, it is desirable to accentuate positive elements for discipline to be most effective. This includes the use of praise, which must be used with extreme care.

Measuring motivation is essential if the leader is to grasp a sense of reality as viewed by his subordinates. This reality can then form a base for good leadership. Attitude surveys in the form of written questionnaires or interviews are two measurement techniques. Both require considerable skill in application and must be followed through with action. If nothing is done after measurement, it could be worse than if no attempt was ever made. The most effective technique is the observation of action

in conflict situations. These observations have often been neglected by those engaged in consumer motivation research. That their findings have frequently been in error should not be surprising.

The leader must identify, implant, and excite human motives in order to be successful. This requires a good deal of sensitivity to human needs but in no sense implies the use of paternalism or mollycoddling. Good leadership recognizes the importance of empathy--spiritually entering the mind of another--as an aid in understanding human behavior. The leader recognizes that powerful motivators need the most attention and should be the ones to excite.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

I. SUMMARY

The Coast Guard Reserve unit has an important position in the national defense establishment. Unique leadership problems exist in a unit because of lack of a strong military environment and part-time loyalties that are a result of part-time training. As there is nothing intrinsic to a Reservist that makes him concerned with the goals of the Coast Guard Reserve, a study of means by which he may be externally motivated toward such goals is important. The use of reason in such efforts is necessary because of the increasing educational level of the average Reservist.

An understanding of the nature of man is a prerequisite to human skill in directing him. He can be distinguished from animal and vegetable matter because of his soul, consisting of both intellect and free will. One facet gives him the power to understand his environment and the other the right to cooperate with nature as he sees fit. Both body and soul are best viewed as a whole and not separate.

Motivation is the influence brought to bear on a man's

will. It recognizes the existence of primary and derived needs. The latter are essentially social in character and are predominant only after primary needs have been met. Derived needs are not considered inherited but acquired and include economic security, recognition, participation, mastery, respect, and identification. These needs may lie dormant and many people are unconscious of them.

Leadership and motivation are synonymous--the process of influencing human behavior in a goal-orientated direction. Normally, leadership is classified into two types, authoritarian and democratic. The first type is a function of acquired authority and views the leader and subordinate in two distinct roles. The second type views the decision-making process of the leader as integral with participation of the subordinate. Authority is motivation that influences a person's behavior under conditions of little or no participation. Discipline is another facet of motivation. It is considered a force, either external or internal, that causes individuals to conform to rules, regulations, and high standards of motivation.

The measurement of motivation is essential to good leadership. Techniques include the use of the written questionnaire and the interview method. However, the most effective means is

the observation of motivation under conflict. The resulting action indicates the stronger motive.

The leader must act in a positive direction to motivate his subordinates if he hopes to achieve planned goals. Basically, the leader's relation to subordinates' motives is to identify, implant, and excite them. All these actions must be accomplished in a firm but fair manner and do not imply universal happiness. Powerful motivators will be recognized as most effective. These motivating skills must be developed in a natural way and used on a day-to-day basis and not only in times of decision making.

II. CONCLUSIONS

From the data developed in this study the following conclusions regarding the development and maintenance of motivation in a Coast Guard Reserve unit may be made.

Motivation is both simple and complicated: simple in its basic framework of need satisfaction, yet complicated in practice. There are no simple cause-and-effect relationships, and often the influences of primary importance are subtle and obscure. It is impossible to predict with much exactitude the behavior of a Reservist, but it is equally impossible to predict the exact course of an individual electron or atom in the physical sciences. Yet, the latter circumstance does not worry the physicist. Nevertheless,

it is clear that the quality of motivation prevailing in any unit is not a matter of chance.

Basic to all other factors is the sensitivity of Reserve leaders toward the needs of their men. The nature of this sensitivity will largely determine the quality of motivation that prevails in the unit.

It is then necessary to understand the Reservist's present perception of the world. If there is any common leadership mistake made by Reserve leaders in their relations with subordinates, it is the mistake of assuming that the "real" world is all that counts, that everyone works for the same personal goals, that the facts speak for themselves. What the Reservist thinks about is a factor of no small importance in the process of motivating him. The task of creating effective motivation calls for a keen appreciation of human thought processes in order to understand human needs.

With increased sensitivity and some application of empathy, it is then the duty of Reserve leaders to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that Reservists can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts towards organizational objectives. This effort relies heavily on self-control and self-direction and minimizes reliance upon external control of

human behavior. It calls for a new leadership role that thinks of motivation primarily in terms of individual need satisfaction. I hasten to add that it does not involve the abdication of management, the absence of leadership, the lowering of standards, or other characteristics usually associated with a "soft" approach. Instead, it proposes that direct order-giving be used only as a last resort, contrary to customary procedures.

Thus far man has not been able to build an electronic brain that can come up with original thoughts, or display courage and love of liberty. Neither can the machine be dedicated to God and Country. Therefore, man, because he has an intellect and free will, is going to continue to be the key to the kind of national defense we need. The man in our study, the Coast Guard Reservist, has needs that are constantly changing and demand satisfaction; as someone has said, none but the dead are completely satisfied. The successful Reserve leader will recognize this fact and act accordingly, knowing that nothing short of spontaneous and sustained enthusiasm for the undertaking and its purpose permeating every member of the unit can ultimately yield the optimum results. He realizes that the type of response will be determined by the type of stimulus; he knows that expert leadership and motivation are inseparable.

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